Mouse helpers ensure maternal-infant survival

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Parental care is required for offspring health and survival, as infants are largely helpless and require near-continual oversight for extensive periods. Parents must balance caretaking behaviors with other activities for their own survival such as thermoregulation and foraging, necessarily involving consequential decision-making and periods of pup neglect. We built a new system for long-term continuous recordings of mouse homecage behaviors, monitoring single wild-type or oxytocin receptor knockout (OXTR-KO) dams and offspring over four litters. Here we show that experienced female mouse mothers use behavioral mechanisms to ensure maternal and infant survival of other consociating animals. Many wild-type mothers had high litter survival rates ('high-pup-survival' dams), but about a third of wild-types had little to no pups survive ('low-pup-survival' dams), and this did not change across litters. Low-pup-survival dams generally avoided pups and nests. However, if low-pup-survival dams were temporarily co-housed with a high-pup-survival dam and her litter, their litter survival rates then enduringly increased due to enhanced attention toward pups and nests. In contrast, almost all singly-housed OXTR-KOs died in childbirth and their pups perished after prolonged parturition. Co-housing with another female prevented maternal and infant mortality, with the other female removing and cleaning pups from the pregnant dam. These results show that even under well-controlled housing conditions, mouse maternal care can be remarkably variable, with continued nest rebuilding as a major factor for post-parturition litter survival. While some single mothers continually lose their litters or die in labor, maternal and infant survival can improve through interactions with other experienced females.

Main Text

Parental behavior is essential for the well-being of offspring and the survival of the species (Dulac et al., 2014; Rilling and Young, 2014). Adult animals can become highly sensitive to the needs of their infants to adequately care for them, as infants require intense continuous protection for days to years depending on species. Mouse pups in particular rely on their mother for sustenance, thermoregulation, and protection, supported by successful nest-building (Leon et al., 1978; Lynch and Possidente, 1978; Gaskill et al., 2012). However, pup mortality can result if dams are neglectful or provide inadequate care during the postnatal period. Parental animals must balance caregiving behaviors with other behaviors required for their own survival, making single parenting especially challenging. Previous studies of rodents and other species report a remarkably high degree of infant mortality, both outdoors in native habitats and animals housed in laboratory conditions- although it remains controversial how much infant mortality occurs for isolate vs communally-rearing mothers (König, 1993; Manning et al., 1995; Ferrari et al., 2019; Capas-Peneda et al., 2020; Brajon et al., 2021). We aimed to resolve when and how pup mortality occurs, if it is due to parental neglect or other factors, and if mouse mothers might learn from certain experiences to improve maternal care over subsequent litters. We also examined oxytocin receptor knockout mouse mothers compared to wild-types, to clarify how oxytocin receptor signaling might be important for maternal-infant health.

We designed a high-resolution system to monitor parental care and family life in mice with multiple cameras, recording from homecages continuously 24 hours/day for weeks to months across consecutive litters (**Fig. 1A**). Individual cages were contained within custom-designed environmental control boxes, containing at least two camera mounts to record from the top, side,

and underneath the nest. We also used infrared cameras to record in darkness and a thermal imaging camera to monitor temperature. Video was combined with an inexpensive, open-source system to control LED light-strips to provide a naturalistic light/dark cycle, together with temperature and humidity sensors connected to an Arduino circuit board that controls two fans, and adjusts their speed to maintain the enclosure temperature at 26-28 °C (**Fig. 1B**), a level close to adult mouse thermoneutrality of 30°C (Król & Speakman, 2003; Gaskill et al., 2012). Data were saved to local servers and streamed remotely for machine learning-based quantitative behavioral analysis along with annotations by several independent experienced human raters.

We monitored a total of 64 single-housed wild-type C56Bl/6 female mice continuously over 3-4 months, from first mating and first litter through subsequent breeding and litters (**Fig. 1C**, top). Although many different maternal behaviors were documented and scored over the postnatal period, we focused on interactions with pups and the nest in the first few days of each litter (**Fig. 1C**, bottom). This was due largely to surprisingly high pup mortality even in the protected conditions of the lab vivarium and standardized housing enclosures we developed. We quantified litter survival from the moment of birth over the first 24 postnatal hours, in which most mortality was observed. For the first cohort of 21 mice, the average survival of the first litter was 60.5±9.7%. However, litter survival was clearly bimodal—9/21 first-time dams had 100% pup survival, and 6/21 dams had 0% pup survival (**Fig. 1D**, Litter 1). We refer to dams with ≥50% litter survival as 'high-pup-survival' dams, and dams with <50% pups surviving as 'low-pup-survival' dams.

We hypothesized that for low-pup-survival dams, litter survival rates might improve over subsequent litters as dams learned from experience or had other forms of maternal adaptation in

the service of improved caregiving. However, this was not the case. As shown in **Figure 1D**, litter

survival of singly-housed wild-type C57Bl/6 mice continued to be bimodal, with 13/21 high-pup-

survival dams and 8/21 low-pup-survival dams for litter 2, 8/21 low-pup-survival dams for litter

3, and 6/12 low-pup-survival dams for litter 4 (**Fig. 1D**, left). With the exception of a single animal,

high-pup-survival dams continued to have high litter survival rates across all 3-4 monitored litters,

and low-pup-survival dams consistently lost most or all of their litters across all monitored litters

(**Fig. 1D**, right). This meant that the litter survival rate of the first litter predicted with high

accuracy the survival of subsequent litters (**Fig. 1E**; $N=21$, $r \geq 0.8$, $p<0.001$).

Inspection of video recordings showed that almost none of the litter mortality observed in either

high- or low-pup-survival dams was due to aggression or mauling of otherwise healthy pups

(observed in 5/64 dams). Instead, low-pup-survival dams neglected pups and nests after initial

nest-building was complete. In contrast, high-pup-survival dams consistently re-engaged in nest-

building, especially because entering and leaving the nest sometimes disrupted nest integrity. We

found that hand-scoring nest quality 1-3 days prior to parturition also predicted litter survival

across dams (**Fig. 2A**).

The importance of nest quality likely reflects the function of nests to keep pups insulated especially

when the dam is not present in the nest, because pups do not reliably thermoregulate their body

temperature and can perish from hypothermia (Weber and Olsson, 2008). However, it proved

challenging to reliably hand-score nests over extended periods, because nest structure was dynamic

and the visual features of a nest might not perfectly relate to the thermal insulative qualities that

nests must provide. Therefore, we used thermal imaging to monitor pup temperature directly. This

required us to segment the nest from the video recording and use it to isolate the temperature of

the pups within the nest (**Fig. 2B**).

We monitored pup temperature during periods when dams made excursions from the nest. This

happened frequently as mother animals left to forage for food and water, and to regulate their own

body temperature as they can overheat if they stay too long on the nest (Leon et al., 1978; Gamo

et al., 2016; Król and Speakman, 2019). We focused on moderate-duration excursions of >23

seconds, averaging pup temperature and heat loss over this period. We found that both the initial

temperature and the temperature drop predicted pup mortality: higher tonic temperatures and less

average heat loss were correlated with higher pup survival (**Fig. 2C,D**).

On average the total time spent on the nest was unrelated to litter survival rates (**Fig. 2E**). Initial

time spent nest-building also was uncorrelated with litter survival (**Fig. 2F**). Instead, the main post-

partum predictor of pup survival was amount of time the dam spent rebuilding the nest (**Fig. 2G**).

Low-pup-survival dams typically spent some time nest-building initially, but then gave up, and

subsequently lost most or all of their offspring within hours. High-pup-survival dams continued to

adjust and rebuild the nest especially after leaving the nest and disrupting nest integrity. We also

noticed that many high-pup-survival dams stocked food pellets near the nest (**Fig. 2H**). This

seemed less related to shorter foraging times and more related to structural bolstering of nest wall

integrity due to the weight of the food pellets.

It was surprising that over multiple rounds of breeding, low-pup-survival dams did not increase

attention to pups and time spent rebuilding their nests. We wondered if low-pup-survival dams

somehow could not provide adequate caregiving under any circumstance, or if instead perhaps

with different experiences these animals could become less neglectful and have higher survival

rates. Previously we documented the emergence of alloparenting in initially-neglectful and pup

averse virgin female C57Bl/6 mice, after being co-housed with experienced dams and litters

(Marlin et al. 2015; Carcea et al. 2021). In this case for alloparenting, behavioral changes in the

virgin were due to encouragement or coercion by the experienced dam, who shepherded or forced

the virgin to spend time in the nest until eventually the virgin became a successful alloparent.

We reasoned that similar parental behavior might emerge if we co-housed an initially low-pup-

survival dam with an experienced dam and her litter. We identified a separate cohort of low-pup-

survival dams with 0% litter survival at litter 1 and <50% litter survival for litter 2. Prior to mating

these animals for litter 3, we co-housed some of these animals for 16-20 days with an experienced

high-pup-survival dam and litter; other animals were kept isolated for a similar duration. We then

bred these animals and monitored pup survival for litters 3 and 4 when they were returned to being

singly-housed in our behavioral monitoring chambers (**Fig. 3A**).

We found that temporarily co-housing 'low-pup-survival' dams with another experienced mother

led to much higher survival rates of litters 3 and 4, compared to the other animals who were just

kept isolated for 16-20 days (**Fig. 3B**; red, co-housed dams, litter 3 survival: 74.2±6.6%, N=17;

black, isolate dams, litter 3 survival: 15.4±7.3%, N=9, $p<10^{-5}$ compared to litter 3 survival of co-

housed animals, Student's unpaired two-tailed t-test). Inspection of video recorded during the co-

housing period revealed that while the low-pup-survival dams were initially pup-averse, within

hours to days they began interacting with pups and helped with childcare. This seemed to be due

to behaviors of the other experienced dam, who shepherded the low-pup-survival dam into the nest

and seemingly demonstrated aspects of maternal care (Carcea et al. 2021). This improvement of

maternal care in the low-pup-survival dams did not seem to be due to, e.g., social buffering effects

from co-housing with any other animal. Co-housing the low-pup-survival dam between litters 2

and 3 with either a pup-naïve virgin female (N=8) or an experienced paternal male (N=9) did not

improve pup survival for litter 3 (**Fig. 3C**). Co-housing in these cases occurred without pups, as

none of the adult animals would be lactating.

Finally, we wondered if our system would be generally useful for thorough phenotyping of

maternal care, infant survival, and other details of mouse family life across different genotypes or

other variables of interest. As a test case, we studied oxytocin receptor knockout mice, as there is

continued interest and some controversy in the range of behavioral and physiological phenotypes

of animals lacking oxytocin receptors (Berendzen et al., 2023). As our specific question of interest,

we wondered how animals reported to not have uterine contractions could have normal parturition

(Takayanagi et al., 2005).

The first cohort of receptor knockout animals we examined were singly-housed and nulliparous

knockout females placed in our housing system after the first round of mating and breeding.

Animals turn in circles during labor, clearing the cage floor of bedding and facilitating

unobstructed video recording from underneath the homecage during this time. To our surprise,

singly-housed oxytocin receptor knockout animals struggled for hours to days in labor, with pups

becoming stuck in the birth canal and dams attempting to mechanically push pups out or pull them

out with their mouth or paws. The prolonged and difficult labor prevented them from being able

to clean pups of the amniotic sac. As a consequence, all pups born to singly-housed oxytocin

receptor knockout dams died (**Fig. 4A,B**, 'Non', N=7, 0% pup survival for all litters). Likely

because of this protracted labor, almost all singly-housed receptor knockout dams died as well

(**Fig. 4C,** 'Non', 6/7 oxytocin receptor dams expired).

Much mouse breeding occurs in group-housed cages (e.g., for 'harem breeding', as well as to

reduce number of animal cages and cage costs). Additionally, as oxytocin receptor knockout mice

do not have milk ejection during nursing (Takayanagi et al., 2005), for pups to survive post-

parturition animals must be co-housed with a lactating female. Thus the other cohort of oxytocin

receptor knockout females we examined were co-housed with a pregnant wild-type female. The

oxytocin receptor knockout dams also had prolonged and difficult labor, but when the first pup

breached and got stuck in the birth canal, we observed remarkable changes in behavior of the co-

housed pregnant wild-type mouse. The other female approached the dam in labor, and seemed to

act as a 'midwife', helping to remove stuck pups with her mouth and paws, and cleaning pups of

the amniotic sac so they could begin to breathe (**Fig. 4D,E**). These helping behaviors seemed vital

to maternal-infant survival. In all cases, pup mortality was drastically reduced and litter survival

rates were quite high (**Fig. 4A**; '+Dam', 90.2±3.5% pup survival per litter, N=10 litters, $p<10^{-5}$

compared to non-co-housed receptor knockout litters, Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test). 9/10

co-housed oxytocin receptor knockout dams also survived labor, compared to 1/7 singly-housed

dams (**Fig. 4C**, '+Dam', p<0.003, Fisher's two-tailed exact test).

Our study provides insights into mouse maternal behavior over time and across consecutive litters,

the impact of the nest and its insulating capacity on pup survival, and the importance of interactions

and behaviors of other experienced mouse mothers particularly with animals who would otherwise

lose their pups and die in childbirth. These observations resulted from the 'documentary' approach

to monitoring animal behavior continuously over extended periods of days to months, with

multiple cameras including under the nest. This was essential to accurately capture moments of

parturition, to identify the number of pups delivered by each dam, the caregiving behaviors or

neglect by the mother, and behaviors between dyads of animals in the service of pup survival. Our

system was designed to be low-cost and reduce the amount of intervention or maintenance required

to monitor homecage behavior, and thus is similar in these regards to other behavioral systems

starting to be developed by other groups (Benedict and Cudmore, 2023; Zhang et al., 2023).

Our findings indicate that even under the controlled and protected conditions of a laboratory

vivarium, childcare can be immensely challenging and taxing, requiring continued effort on the

part of caregivers to ensure pups are fed and warm. Under the conditions of our environmentally-

controlled home cages, approximately a third to a half of C57Bl/6 mouse mothers were observed

to lose most to all of their litters due to neglect of pups and nest. The nest structure was quite

dynamic, needing to be repeatedly adjusted or rebuilt due to the movement of the mother in and

out of the nest, and the motion of the pups. Thermal imaging was important to relate this aspect of

parental behavior to litter survival, as pups rapidly dropped in temperature without a well-

constructed insulating nest and died within minutes.

One potential concern is that the extent of pup mortality and relatively high prevalence of low-

pup-survival dams is a consequence of sustained single-adult housing especially combined with

the stress of childcare. A related caveat is that our studies were performed exclusively in C57Bl/6

mice, and it is known that there are differences in parental behaviors across rodent strains (Ward,

1980). Even accounting for the genetic background, within the C57Bl/6 strain there was

considerable bi-modality in childcare abilities, which might reflect other individual differences in

gene expression and/or neural responses to infant distress cues that will need to be further

documented. Most wild species of mice are believed to live in multi-female colonies (Ferrari et

al., 2019) where perhaps many different adults can participate in childcare, tending to pups and

nests, and shepherd or help other inexperienced adults take care of offspring. However, little is

known about the fine-scale adult social dynamics of colony organization and how this relates to

communal child-care. The system we have developed enables a systematic and parametric

exploration of different variables related to social structure and housing conditions, and promises

to reveal much more about the family life of lab mice and other species.

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experiments. L.S., R.H., V.J.I., A.C., G.K., S.S., D.A., M.K., and P.L. performed behavioral

analysis. K.E.A. provided analysis tools and data archiving. L.S., R.C.F., K.E.A., and A.M.

designed the study and wrote the paper.

Materials and Methods

All procedures were approved under NYU Grossman School of Medicine IACUC protocols.

System for Long-Term 24/7 Behavioral Analysis. For long-term monitoring of the acquisition and expression of maternal behavior in single-housed animals, we used 8–10-weeks-old C57BL/6 naïve virgin female mice. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size. The experiments were not randomized. The behavioral raters were blinded to litter survival rate, allocation during co-housing, and outcome assessment.

A virgin female mouse was housed alone in a 27.94 × 27.94 × 27.94 cm plexiglass homecage covered with plentiful bedding material, food pellets, hydrogel and/or a water bottle (refreshed every 3-5 days), and one Nestlet. We began by recording continuous video of the naïve virgin behavior while housed alone for up to 5 days, before introducing an experienced C57BL/6 male mouse for breeding afterwards. The male mouse was removed from the enclosure after successful intercourse, confirmed through visual examination of video footage, typically after 24-48 hours. For further confirmation of mating, when removing the male mouse from the enclosure, we also checked the virgin for a vaginal plug and we closely monitored the female mouse for physical and behavioral changes typical of a gravid animal. If by day 10 post-mating, the female mouse did not show weight-gain or weight-redistribution, a new experienced male was introduced in the homecage for mating.

Dams were allowed to stay with the pups until weaning on P21 in the same homecage. After that, the female was placed back in the enclosure for a few days and mated again, following the same procedure as with the first litter. This was performed for four consecutive litters.

Video Acquisition. Video recordings were acquired from 1-3 cameras (OV5647 sensor) sensitive to infrared light and outfitted with 160 FOV wide-angle lenses and placed either above the enclosure (overhead view), perpendicular to the nest (nest view), or below the nest (bottom-up view). Each camera was connected to a Raspberry Pi 4 single board computer that captured, streamed, and saved uninterrupted video from the enclosures (30 frames per second) to a local server using the Python library OpenCV. For some animals, videography was performed continuously at all times up to weaning of the third litter; for other animals, we focused video recording on 3-5 days before birth up until P5.

Behavioral Analysis. For analysis of video data, we used two different DeepLabCut (DLC) networks: one trained to track the location of the dam and another one to track the pups. The location of the nest was extracted with custom Matlab code using image segmentation, and we processed frame-by-frame pose data obtained with DLC to identify episodes of dam nest entry or exit. Nest entry time was defined as the moment when the two front paws entered the nest cavity. We also used nests as a region of interest (ROI), to identify when a pup was out of the nest and how long it took for the dam to it.

We used Datavyu to manually score other behaviors. Five independent coders identified relevant individual and social behaviors and scored the videos blind to litter number and survival rate. The results from each rater were compared, compiled, and cross-validated.

Thermal Imaging. For thermal imaging, we recorded continuous thermograms with a thermal camera (FLIR C3) placed above the nest, streaming temperature data (15 frames per second) to a

Windows PC through a USB cable. Thermographic data were captured with the FLIR Tools software, timestamped, and saved as a csv file.

We synchronized the thermograms and the video recordings post-hoc using timestamp information. We isolated the episodes in which the dam was out of the nest, identified the video frame and thermogram corresponding to the onset of the episode, located the nest opening using image segmentation, and then extracted and averaged the corresponding pixel temperature information from that ROI. We saved these frame-by-frame average traces as csv files. For pup temperature analysis, we identified episodes in which pups were out of the nest and followed a similar procedure to the nest temperature analysis focusing on the out-of-nest pup as our ROI.

Litter Mortality. We monitored both the videos and the thermograms daily to establish how many pups were born alive, how many were stillbirths, and how many were cannibalized. We used color, temperature, movement, and physical integrity to determine if pups were alive. We calculated the litter survival rate as surviving pups on P5 divided by the total number of pups born alive.

Co-Housing. Dams with 0% litter survival during their first litter and less than 50% survival during their second litter were co-housed either with an experienced high-pup-survival dam with her pups (~P5 and older), a virgin, a paternal male, or left in isolation. Co-housing was performed for 16-20 days, before being mated a third and fourth time.

Data and Code Availability. The data that support the findings of this study are available on Databrary. Custom code are available on Github.

 Figures and Figure Legends

Figure 1. Continuous long-term monitoring of mouse maternal care across litters. **A.** Schematic

of setup for 24/7 continuous monitoring of homecage behaviors. A standard mouse homecage was

placed within a custom enclosure containing cameras from top, side, and underneath the nest. **B**.

System for long-term continuous visible-light and thermal imaging with environmental controls.

C. Homecage behaviors were monitored over four litters, scored by automated methods (in/out of

nest) and manually (nest building, nest manipulation, cannibalism). Top, timeline of monitoring

of individual animals (times are ages of the dams). Bottom, example ethograms showing several

hours of spontaneous homecage behaviors for the same animal during litters 1, 2, and 3. **D**. Litter

survival at 24 hours post-parturition. Left, fraction of pups surviving after the first postnatal day

(*N*=21 dams). Each gray circle represents one dam's litter, with the same animals monitored over

litters 1-4. 9/21 dams had 100% survival at litter 1 ('high-pup-survival dams'), and 8/9 of those

animals had 100% survival at litter 3 as well. 6/21 dams had 0% litter survival at litter 1, and 5/6

of those animals had 0% survival at litter 3. Right, same data with lines connecting litter survival

from the same dam across all 3-4 monitored litters. **E**. Correlation of litter survival over litters.

Left, litter 1 survival predicted litter 2 survival across dams (N=21, r(DF): 0.82, p<0.0001). Right,

litter 1 survival also predicted litter 3 survival (N=21, r(DF): 0.97, *p*<0.0001).

Figure 2. Nests must be rebuilt to ensure pup thermoregulation. **A**. Visual scoring of nest quality; higher nest integrity scores were correlated with higher litter survival rates (r(DF)=.69, p<.001). **B**. Procedure for monitoring pup temperature. Video frames were used to compute nest mask, registered with thermal imaging to isolate pup temperatures. **C**. Examples of heat loss when dam leaves the nest; curves show average drop in pup temperature over many excursions of the dam from the nest (8+ seconds in duration). Top, high-pup-survival dam; bottom, low-pup-survival dam. Insets show representative nest structures from these animals. **D**. Pup temperature when dam left the nest. Top: litter survival was not correlated with the initial temperature upon dam leaving,

403   r(DF)=.22, p=0.49. Bottom: litter survival was correlated with temperature drop after dam left the

404   nest, r(DF)=-.84, p=.007). **E**. Dam interaction with the nest. Top: litter survival was not correlated

405   with total time spent in the nest on the first full day after parturition, r(DF)=.006, p=.98. Bottom:

406   litter survival was correlated with amount of time dams spent rebuilding the nest, r(DF)=.65,

407   p=.04.

 Figure 3. Co-housing with an experienced high-pup-survival dam improves maternal care. **A,**

 Timeline for co-housing studies: virgin females were bred and those dams with 0% litter survival

for litter 1 and <50% survival for litter 2 were selected for these studies; dams were singly-housed for all four litters. Between litters 2 and 3, dams were divided into four groups and placed in a separate cage for 16-20 days before the third round of mating ('+Dam': housed with an experienced high-pup-survival dam and her litter, N=17; 'Non': non-co-housed, i.e., singly housed without pups, N=9; '+Virg': co-housed with a pup-naïve virgin female but no pups, N=8; '+Male': co-housed with an experienced paternal male but no pups, N=9). **B**, Co-housing with an experienced high-pup-survival dam led to improved litter survival of initially low-pup-survival dams. Litter survival of all animals for litter 1: 0%, for litter 2: $19.6 \pm 4.1\%$ (N=26, combining the non-co-housed animals with those that were then co-housed with an experienced dam). Seventeen of these animals were co-housed prior to mating for litter 3; litter survival for litter 3: $74.2 \pm 6.6\%$ (N=17), for litter 4: $79.7 \pm 7.5\%$ (N=9). For the nine non-co-housed animals from the same cohort, litter survival remained low; for litter 3: $15.4 \pm 7.3\%$ (N=9, $p < 10^{-5}$ compared to litter 3 survival of co-housed animals, Student's unpaired two-tailed t-test), for litter 4: 0% (N=3). Litter 2 survival for these two groups was not significantly different (dams to be co-housed, litter 2 survival: $22.5 \pm 5.7\%$; non-co-housed dams, litter 2 survival: $14.2 \pm 5.3\%$; p=0.30, Student's unpaired two-tailed t-test). **C**, Comparison of litter survival for litters 2 and 3 per group ('+Dam', litter 2 survival: $22.5 \pm 5.7\%$, litter 3 survival: $74.2 \pm 6.6\%$, N=17, $p < 10^{-4}$, Student's paired two-tailed t-test; 'Non', litter 2 survival: $14.2 \pm 5.3\%$, litter 3 survival: $15.4 \pm 7.3\%$, N=9, p=0.86; '+Virg', litter 2 survival: $20.8 \pm 4.4\%$, litter 3 survival: $13.2 \pm 7.0\%$, N=8, p=0.29; '+Male', litter 2 survival: $17.1 \pm 6.5\%$, litter 3 survival: $23.5 \pm 6.9\%$, N=9, p=0.32). **, $p < 0.01$; *, $p < 0.05$.

Figure 4. Pregnant wild-type females perform behaviors to help improve maternal-infant survival of oxytocin receptor knockout mice in labor. **A**, Litter survival rates of pups from primiparous oxytocin receptor knockout dams, either co-housed with a pregnant wild-type female (red,

'+Dam'; 90.2±3.5% litter survival, N=10) or singly-housed (black, 'Non'; 0% survival, N=7,

p<10^{-5}, Student's unpaired two-tailed t-test). **B**, Overall litter survival rates of singly-housed wild-

type dams ('WT', 56.5±5.1% pup survival across all litters examined here of low- and high-pup-

survival dams, N=73) vs oxytocin receptor knockouts (0%, N=7, p<10^{-5}). **C**, Maternal survival of

oxytocin receptor knockout animals co-housed with a wild-type pregnant female (red, '+Dam',

9/10 knockout dams survived labor) or non-co-housed (black, 'Non', 1/7 knockout dams survived

labor, p<10^{-5}, Fisher's two-tailed exact test). **D**, Illustrations of three main helping behaviors

during labor: removing stuck pups with mouth, removing stuck pups with paw, cleaning pups post-

delivery. **E**, Ethograms for three different animals in parturition: a singly-housed wild-type dam

(top), a singly-housed oxytocin receptor knockout dam (upper middle), and a co-housed oxytocin

receptor knockout dam (lower middle) together with a co-housed wild-type female (bottom). For

dams, black bars indicate duration of parturition for each birthed pup over 1.5-2 hrs. For co-housed

female, colored lines indicate different 'midwife'-like behaviors denoted by the legend.